

Reaction to reviewers comments on SOIL-2016-2 (Bouma and Montanarella)

Reviewer1

We thank the reviewer for his positive reaction to this paper(“this is a very interesting manuscript analysing a recent “hot” topic”). In answer to his queries:

1. Line 57: Indeed, the internet is with us for 20 years! We will change this.
2. We will include reference to “open” data as suggested and to Robinson (2015).
3. We will refer to a broader audience than just our own students.
4. Line 175: correct; we will include a broader reference.
5. Line 182: we will include a reference to the published report.
6. L309: we will include the quotation marks.
7. Line 351: Indeed, since 2003 we should refer to Good Agricultural and Environmental Conditions (GAEC). This will be changed. Good point!
8. Lines 3651-358. We will include the two suggested references as they are relevant in strengthening the discours.
9. We agree with the general comment on the role of soil scientists, but point out that being focused on ecosystem services, let alone on the Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations, requires cooperation with other disciplines, the need for which is pointed out by the reviewer. We have incorporated this statement in the text of the revised manuscript and will refer to Keesstra et al (2016) where this point is emphasized and illustrated.:

Keesstra, S.D., J.Bouma, J.Wallinga, P.Tittonell, P.Smith, A.Cerda, L.Montanarella, J.Quinton, Y.Pachepsky, W.H.van der Putten, R.D.Bardgett, S.Moolenaar, G.Mol and L.O.Fresco. 2016. The significance of soils and soil science towards realization of the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDG's).SOIL (doi:10.5194/soil- 2015.88).

- 10.Indeed, UNCCD (United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification) is added.

Reviewer 2

We thank the reviewer for his statement that this is a “strong paper”. In reaction to his comments (excluding his grammatical suggestions that we will follow) :

1. Line 57: Yes, the internet is with us for a longer period than 15 years. We changed that .

2. Line 65: We will add a specific reference to a Dutch publication that documents the education levels of our young farmers.
3. Lines 186-205: yes, we will add some additional references. Aside from the suggested one by Tabor et al 2011, Italian work by Bonfante et al will be cited and two recent publications by Montanarella that include references to field work (Nature, 528(7580), 32-3, 2015 and Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability , 15, 41-48. 2015). Also, the Keesstra et al (2016) paper, cited above, contains relevant references.

1 **Facing policy challenges with inter- and transdisciplinary soil research focused**
2 **on the SDG's.**

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 Our current information society, populated by increasingly well informed and critical
9 stakeholders, presents a challenge to both the policy and science arena's. The
10 introduction of the UN Sustainable Development Goals offers a unique and welcome
11 opportunity to direct joint activities towards these goals. Soil science, even though it
12 is not mentioned as such, plays an important role in realizing a number of SDG's
13 focusing on food, water, climate, health, biodiversity and sustainable land use. A plea
14 is made for a systems approach to land use studies, to be initiated by soil scientists,
15 in which these land-related SDG's are considered in an integrated manner. To
16 connect with policy makers and stakeholders two approaches are functional,
17 following: (i) the policy cycle when planning and executing research, which includes
18 *signaling, design, decision, implementation and evaluation*. Many current research
19 projects spend little time on *signaling* which may lead to disengagement of
20 stakeholders. Also, *implementation* is often seen as the responsibility of others while
21 it is crucial to demonstrate – if successful- the relevance of soil science and (ii) the
22 DPSIR approach when following the policy cycle in land-related research,
23 distinguishing external *drivers, pressures, impact and responses* to land-use change
24 that affect the *state* of the land in past, present and future. Soil science cannot by
25 itself realize SDG's and interdisciplinary studies on Ecosystem Services (ES) provide
26 an appropriate channel to define contributions of soil science in terms of the seven
27 soil functions. ES, in turn, can contribute to addressing the six SDG's (2,3,6,12, 13
28 and 15) with an environmental, land-related character. SDG's have a societal focus
29 and future soil science research can only be successful if stakeholders are part of the
30 research effort in transdisciplinary projects, based on the principle of time-consuming
31 "joint-learning". The internal organization of the soil science discipline is not yet well-
32 tuned to the needs of inter- and transdisciplinary approaches.

33

34 **Introduction**

35 This paper will discuss the relationships between policy and sustainability research
36 focusing on soil science, realizing that societies have been subject to major changes
37 in the recent past. ~~Twenty~~Fifteen years ago, the internet had hardly established itself.
38 (Hilbert and Lopez, 2011). Now, billions of people have computers and mobile
39 phones and unlimited access to an overwhelming quantity of “open” data and
40 information via the World Wide Web (Robinson, 2015).- Scientists are not the only
41 source of information anymore as they were in the not too distant past, at least in
42 their own perception. Rather than deliver information by communicating results of
43 their research they are now increasingly faced with the challenge to judge information
44 provided by the Web and channel it to interested stakeholders. Also, stakeholders
45 have become more knowledgeable and critical. A recent analysis showed that more
46 than 50% of young Dutch farmers has a BSc or MSc degree. (Van der Meulen et al,
47 2015). ~~After all, many of them are our own students!~~

48 ~~T~~hese societal changes not only had a major impact on the policy arena, where
49 citizens become more active outside the traditional political party systems, but also
50 on the relation between science and society. Rather than be just recipients of
51 information, citizens are increasingly partners in joint learning processes. This not
52 only applies to so-called developed countries but increasingly to developing countries
53 as well where mobile phones are the primary source of an information revolution. It
54 appears that the soil science community , like other disciplines, is struggling to catch
55 up with these modern developments as many traditional procedures in this
56 profession, established in the 19th century, appear to be rather strongly entrenched.

57 The effects of societal changes on policy and science will be discussed with the
58 objective to explore future possibilities for creative and productive interactions
59 between the policy and scientific arenas, with particular attention for the role of soil
60 science research when presenting effective contributions towards the achievement of
61 sustainable development goals.

62 **The policy arena: science meeting society.**

63 A policy is a statement of intent and a deliberate system of principles to guide
64 decisions and achieve rational outcomes after implementation. The policy cycle

65 consists of a number of phases (e.g. Althaus et al, 2007, Bouma et al, 2007): (i) the
66 *signaling* phase in which problems are identified, based on a characterization of
67 current conditions; (ii) the *design* phase in which options for possible corrective action
68 are defined based on research using existing and newly acquired information; (iii) the
69 *decision* phase in which a selection is made by policy makers of options being
70 presented. Here, negotiation processes play an important role; (iv) the
71 *implementation* phase in which the selected option is being realized, and (v) the
72 *evaluation* phase in which the entire process is analysed in terms of a learning
73 procedure, applied to all participants. This may have to include monitoring
74 procedures to document achievements. To be effective, all phases of the policy cycle
75 require some form of interaction between stakeholders involved, governmental
76 agencies, policy makers and scientists. A good example is certainly the US Soil
77 Conservation Act of 1935, responding to the severe soil degradation processes
78 leading to the well-known “Dust Bowl” syndrome that caused serious economic and
79 social problems in that historical period of the United States. But soil related policies
80 have only rarely completed the full policy cycle as described above. In Europe the
81 attempt to reach the implementation phase of the proposed EU Soil Framework
82 Directive was ultimately stopped by the lack of political will of some EU Member States
83 to go beyond the negotiation and decision phase.

84 Policies can be pro-active and reactive, but the latter usually applies. An example is
85 the Nitrate Directive (ND) (EC, 1991) that was initiated because of very high nitrate
86 concentrations in groundwater in many European countries, following excessive
87 fertilization practices in agriculture. A water quality threshold of 50 mg nitrates/litre
88 had already been established in [the](#) literature. It would have been most logical to
89 require measurements of nitrate concentrations in groundwater at different locations,
90 to compare these values with the threshold and next conclude whether or not quality
91 was adequate. However, measurements of nitrate concentrations in water were
92 cumbersome at the time, costly and time consuming and data were hardly available.
93 As any policy measure needs to be organized in such a way that operational
94 procedures can ensue, an alternative “proxy” was selected in terms of a maximum
95 fertilization rate of organic manure corresponding with 170 kg N/ha (e.g. Bouma,
96 2011). This corresponds with the manure production of appr. 1.7 animals/ha which
97 can be easily controlled by regulators because the number of animals and ha's are

98 known for each farm. Groundwater quality in the late 1980's was considered to be
 99 quite poor in many areas and measures had therefore to be taken quickly: the
 100 *signaling, design, decision* and *implementation* phases of the policy cycle followed
 101 very rapidly. The 170 kg N/ha was not based on research, relating different
 102 application rates of fertilizers to nitrate enrichment of groundwater as a function of
 103 weather and soil conditions but was essentially empirical in nature. Science played a
 104 role only as problem recognizer, documenting high nitrate contents of groundwater.
 105 After 25 years, this policy has been quite successful in the Netherlands. ([e.g.](#)
 106 [Bouma, 2016](#)). Average nitrate contents in groundwater in sandy soils were 190 mg/l
 107 in 1991 which was way above the critical threshold. After introduction of the ND in
 108 1991, contents have gradually decreased and in 2012 the average content
 109 corresponded with the threshold. However, contents in sandy soils were lower than
 110 the threshold in the Northern part of the country and are still higher in the southern
 111 part. Nitrate contents in clay soils were still 80 mg/l in 1998 but decreased to 20 mg/l
 112 in 2012, while contents in peat soils were always lower than the threshold. Loess
 113 soils in the southern tip of the country had higher contents than 50 mg/l in 2012 but
 114 these soils only occupy a small area and their very deep watertables create quite
 115 different conditions ([www.rivm.landelijk_meetnet_effecten_mestbeleid](#)). Other problem
 116 areas, such as the quality of surface waters and nature areas, are discussed
 117 elsewhere (Bouma, 2016). Possibly due to the apparent success of the ND, there
 118 has not yet been attention for an in-depth *evaluation* phase of the policy cycle and
 119 this will be discussed later in more detail.

120 Restricting attention to the ND, should the role of science be different in [the](#) future,
 121 and, if so, why?

122 **The changing roles of science and policy in the information society.**

123 The internet was only present in rudimentary form in 1991 ([Hilbert and Lopez, 2011](#)).
 124 Now, everybody is connected to the internet by computer or mobile phone and this is
 125 also true for many developing countries. The world-wide-web creates an enormous
 126 flow of information and scientists are increasingly engaged in interpreting and
 127 screening information that reaches and often confuses users, stakeholders and policy
 128 makers alike. At the same time well educated users ask ever more pertinent and
 129 critical questions. The roles of the various participants in the societal debate that
 130 seemed rather well defined even thirty years ago, have fundamentally changed.

131 Authority is gained by the quality of what is presented, not by the position of the
132 presenters. Some see contributions of science as: "just another opinion" and feel that
133 science has to regain its: 'license to operate". How to deal with this? And how do
134 these effects influence policy makers?

135 | Confronted with citizens of the Knowledge Democracy (In't Veld, 2010⁴) and
136 battered by social media that react instantly to policy measures, and preferably to
137 policy failures, policy makers and regulators become highly risk averse, avoiding
138 controversy if at all possible. This does not invite introduction of innovative measures
139 nor definition of clear goals for future action which may be controversial. Also, there
140 is a tendency in many western countries to decentralize decision making providing
141 more responsibilities to regional, provincial or communal entities. Scientists not only
142 face therefore more knowledgeable and critical stakeholders but also a more diverse
143 group of policy makers. How to deal with this and how to turn these new conditions
144 into an advantage by disruptive thinking, focusing on innovation? (e.g. Loorbach and
145 Rotmans, 2010; Schot and Geels, 2008). A successful example of close linking of
146 the scientific advice and the policy making process is certainly the climate change
147 policy arena. Here the main driver has been the well recognized role of the
148 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in providing high level policy
149 relevant scientific advice through highly reliable assessments. This role of IPCC has
150 gained the members the well deserved Nobel Prize in 2007. The strength of IPCC is
151 that, while being an intergovernmental body nominated by governments, it retains a
152 very high scientific credibility also within the scientific community. This allows IPCC to
153 deliver assessments that are fully endorsed by the related scientific community and
154 fully accepted by the policy making community as well. Such a crucial role of acting
155 as a science-policy interface has been identified as urgently needed also for other
156 multilateral environmental agreements (MEA's), like CBD and UNCCD. The recently
157 established Intergovernmental Platform for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services
158 (IPBES) has indeed the ambition to serve like IPCC as the science policy interface
159 for CBD and also for other related MEAs. The need for such a science-policy
160 interface also for soils was well recognized in 2011 during the negotiations for the
161 establishment of the Global Soil Partnership (GSP). Indeed within the GSP the
162 Intergovernmental Technical Panel on Soils (ITPS) has been established and is
163 | already operating ~~for~~since three years. It's first assessment ~~is~~will be the Status of

164 World's Soil Resources report, released at the closing ceremony of the UN
165 International Year of Soils 2015 ([Montanarella and Alva, 2015](#)).

166 **Signaling as a crucial element of the policy cycle focusing on the SDG's.**

167 Despite all societal changes that soil scientists are confronted with, the policy cycle
168 still applies. *Signaling* requires definition of goals and an assessment as to whether
169 current conditions allow goals to be reached when proper measures are taken or
170 when this will not be possible defining drastic change. The recent 17 UN Sustainable
171 Development Goals (Table 1) (<http://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/focussdgs.html>) provide a
172 valuable point of reference for the policy cycle and for *signaling* in particular. Soils are
173 not an SDG goal by themselves but they have a strong relation with health (SDG 3),
174 water (SDG 6), climate (SDG 13), biodiversity (SDG 15) and sustainable
175 development (Several SDG's, for soil science particularly SDG 15 which mentions
176 land degradation).—All these goals cannot be reached by just studying soils but
177 require interdisciplinary approaches, including contributions by soil science that often
178 have a significant effect on results. [Examples for soil related studies for all these
179 areas are presented by Keesstra et al, \(2016\). Health related issues are increasingly
180 important .Tabor et al \(2011\) presented a novel epidemiological study based on a
181 landscape approach.](#) ~~For example,~~ Bonfante and Bouma (2015) used soil maps and
182 simulation modeling to assess the spatial effects of irrigation practices on the growth
183 of eleven maize hybrids, considering effects of climate change. Results allowed more
184 efficient targeting of water allocation and choice of hybrids for different soil
185 conditions. This was new and surprising for the hydraulic engineers and plant
186 breeders involved who had a rather traditional and static image of the soil science
187 profession. The example shows the advantage of reaching out to other professions.
188 More examples are available and they should be communicated more clearly,
189 demonstrating interdisciplinarity in practice.

190 SDGs are globally applicable and will have to be implemented during the next years
191 by all National governments. Of crucial importance will be the way in which progress
192 towards achieving each goal will be measured. The adoption of an agreed set of
193 indicators becomes therefore of fundamental relevance for the implementation and
194 evaluation phase of the SDGs. Introducing soil related indicators for the SDGs that
195 explicitly mention soil as a component would be desirable, but will face the well
196 known lack of basic soil data and adequate soil monitoring systems in many Nations

197 of the world. A more realistic approach will be to use proxy indicators addressing the
198 goals in a more holistic and integrated manner.

199 In general, the ecosystem services (ES) concept is suitable to express this
200 interdisciplinary effort because disciplines by themselves cannot define ES. (Table 2)
201 (De Groot et al, 2002, Dominati et al, 2014). The next step is to define the role of
202 soils in contributing to the provision of ES and then the seven soil functions of the EC
203 (EC, 2006) can be considered (Table 3). ([Keesstra et al, 2016](#)). For example, SDG
204 2:“*End hunger, improve nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture*” relates to the
205 provisioning ES 1, relating to food. But sustainable development also requires
206 regulating ES 5, 6,7 and 8. Soil functions 2,3 and 6 define the contributions that soil
207 science can make to these more general ecosystem services, which, again, not only
208 require an inter- but also a transdisciplinary approach. Bouma et al (2015) presented
209 six transdisciplinary case studies, identifying relevant SDG’s, ES and soil functions as
210 an example of framing based on studies that were made and published in the past
211 with a traditional scientific focus. They also concluded that in three of the studies
212 existing knowledge was adequate to solve the problem being studied. In the
213 remaining studies new research was needed and defined based on observed gaps in
214 existing knowledge. To avoid confusion, it is important to refer to general ecosystem
215 services and to soil contributions towards those services to be articulated by the soil
216 functions. Terms like soil services or soil ecosystem services should be avoided.

217 **The DPSIR system**

218 When studying SDG’s, ES and the application of soil functions in the context of the
219 policy cycle, the DPSIR system, (Van Camp et al, 2004, Bouma et al, 2008) is helpful
220 to analyse processes involved (Figure 1). Here, S represents the state of the land; D
221 represents drivers of land use change, P are the resulting pressures on the land, I is
222 the impact, and R, finally, indicates a response in terms of development of strategies
223 and operational procedures for the mitigation of perceived threats. The flowchart in
224 Figure 1 shows the past, present, and future state S of the land. Drivers and
225 pressures in the past have led to impacts and, most likely, certain responses. This all
226 results in a present state S which is not only determined by soil factors but can be
227 defined by the ecosystem services it can provide by mobilizing relevant soil functions.
228 This dynamic characterization of the state S is preferred over a static one applying,

229 for instance, a set of soil characteristics as has been the traditional approach in land
230 evaluation (e.g. Bouma et al, 2012).

231 Of particular interest, of course, are future developments that are considered in terms
232 of different scenarios, each one associated with characteristic drivers, pressures, and
233 impacts. Different scenarios represent different visions on sustainability and have, of
234 course, only an exploratory character. In the past scientists of different disciplines
235 acted rather independantly when assessing the various components of the DPSIR
236 system and when defining scenarios, but today soil scientists would be well advised
237 to interact and engage colleagues in other sciences, stakeholders and policy makers
238 during the evaluation period to make sure that all options are considered and that
239 their input is taken into account. This requires a truly transdisciplinary process (e.g.
240 Thomson-Klein et al, 2001). The combined scenarios, presenting a series of
241 alternative options, are presented to the policy arena. Selection has to be made by
242 politicians and citizens, **not by scientists**. This is a crucial point because scientists
243 should maintain their independance and should not be seen as partners in the policy
244 arena or of certain business interests. Often risk averse politicians are more than
245 willing to escape their responsibilities and hide behind scientists, which can be
246 damaging to the scientific reputation. The described scenario approach, defining a
247 series of states S with all its attributes is therefore more appropriate than presenting
248 only one, "ideal" option as defined, for example, by a group of scientists. When
249 considering sustainable development, environmental, social, and economic
250 considerations and approaches have to be mutually balanced to achieve some type
251 of compromise that is acceptable to a wide range of stakeholders (be it grudgingly
252 because their demands can only be partly met in the ultimate compromise) . Usually,
253 economic considerations largely determine the outcome of this type of
254 interdisciplinary analysis. The scheme in Figure 1 suggests an approach where
255 environmental and social aspects, expressed by DPIR, are considered first and
256 economic considerations come later in terms of a cost–benefit analysis for each of
257 the Sf scenarios. The recently proposed Soil Security concept (Mc Bratney and
258 Field, 2015), distinguishing capability, condition, capital, connectivity and codification,
259 fits into the DPSIR scheme. The actual condition corresponds with S and also
260 represents capital. Capability is represented by the scenario's in figure 1, connectivity

261 with the required inter- and transdisciplinary approach and codification is the domain
262 of legislators being fed with relevant information.

263 This analysis indicates that the *signaling* phase of the policy cycle is very important
264 because the option being chosen in the end is, ideally, the result of an extensive
265 participatory process. If so, *design* can receive well focused attention and *decision*
266 *and implementation* can follow rather quickly and harmoniously.

267

268 **Science versus policy in the real world**

269 As discussed, the introduction of the ND after 1991 did not follow the ideal policy
270 cycle. *Signaling, design, decision and implementation* followed quickly because the
271 groundwater quality issue was considered to be critical. In retrospect, the soil science
272 community was successful in the preceding years documenting the effect of different
273 fertilizer practices on groundwater quality but they paid no attention to what an
274 enforceable policy to overcome the problem might look like. Policymakers had to act
275 on their own. After 24 years the policy is unchanged, while many questions are being
276 raised. The universal application rate of 170 kg N/ha does no justice to different
277 processes in different soils and to effects of management. Examples are found where
278 much higher application rates result in low nitrate contents in groundwater. In fact,
279 the ND becomes a defacto means to restrict intensification of agriculture, which is a
280 much broader policy goal (with major societal implications) than groundwater quality.
281 Stakeholders are aware of this and even though well educated farmers support
282 measures to enhance environmental quality, they resist “policy drift”, when objectives
283 secretly change in time. Also, they question what appear to be separate regulations
284 for groundwater, surface water, air and nature quality while nutrient regimes are
285 obviously related to all of them: nitrogen that moves into groundwater cannot be
286 emitted to the air.(e.g. Bouma, 2016). Recent studies for Dutch dairy farms took a
287 systems approach by applying a Life Cycle Assessment for the entire farming
288 operation, not only covering the emission of nutrients to both air and water but net
289 income and energy use as well (Dolman et al, 2014; De Vries et al, 2015). A group
290 of eight farmers followed a nutrient cycling approach to reduce fertilizer use and
291 results of their farming operations was compared with a control group. The program
292 was highly interactive, involving intensive contact with farmers, demonstrating a good
293 example of inter- and transdisciplinary research. There was time for *signaling, design*

294 *and decisions* by cooperating scientists and farmers, followed by *implementation*.
295 The entire procedure took about 20 years. Farmers, following the nutrient cycling
296 approach, had lower use of fertilizer and energy , lower emissions and higher net
297 incomes and organic matter contents of their soils due to management. But due to
298 the high variability among farms, only energy use and organic matter contents were
299 significantly different when compared with a control group. Rather than focus on
300 average values for a group of farmers it would in retrospect have been preferable to
301 focus on individual farms because every farm “has a different story to tell”.
302 Droogers and Bouma (2012) studied accelerating future water shortages in Asia and
303 Africa , requiring development of operational water governance models, as illustrated
304 by three case studies: (1) upstream–downstream interactions in the Aral Sea basin,
305 where the *signaling* function of science was most prominent; (2) impact and
306 adaptation of climate change on water and food supply in the Middle East and North
307 Africa, where not only *signaling* was important but also a broad *design* and a timid
308 start of *implementation* and (3) Green Water Credits in Kenya, where the entire policy
309 cycle was covered, including the start of *implementation*. (Kauffman et al, 2012).

310

311 **From signaling to implementation**

312 Any impression that the sequence of *signaling* all the way to *implementation*
313 represents a smooth , sequential process is, unfortunately, misleadingly simple. A
314 major study on sustainable agriculture in the Netherlands showed that interactions
315 between researchers, various stakeholders and policy makers were complex and
316 repetitive, which can be shown in a diagram visualizing interaction processes. Figure
317 2 (from Bouma et al, 2011) illustrates this for case study 1 in Dutch dairy farms, the
318 same study as the one mentioned above. *Implementation* could in the end only be
319 achieved because the farmers involved, assisted by soil scientists, persisted against
320 all odds. Kauffman et al (2012) presented comparable diagrams for the Kenya study.
321 The role of scientists in the *implementation* phase is different from the role in the
322 *signaling* and *design* phase. In the latter, all opinions are welcome, as described
323 above. But when plans and decisions have been made, *implementation* is a clear
324 goal and distractions are rather unhelpful. Soil scientists can play an important role
325 here by keeping the ultimate goal of the project in focus. It is also in their interest that
326 specific results are obtained to document the beneficial effect of their input. Designs

327 on paper of what appear to be most thoughtful and inventive projects have no impact
328 and create no credit for all involved when they are not realized.

329 There are in Europe already existing soil-related policy instruments that are
330 unfortunately lacking the necessary scientific backup and support from the soil science
331 community. The most relevant example is the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP),
332 probably one of the most important (at least in monetary terms) policy of the
333 European Union. ([e.g. Montanarella, 2015](#)). Obviously, there are major implications
334 for soils when this policy is fully implemented. The mandatory requirement for “~~G~~ood
335 ~~A~~gricultural and Environmental Conditions (GAEC)” ~~ecological practices~~ that
336 farmers need to implement in order to access the direct payment scheme of the CAP
337 explicitly refers to soil parameters like soil erosion, organic carbon and compaction.
338 [Recent examples of GAEC studies illustrate its guiding potential \(Panagos et al,](#)
339 [2015, Lugato et al, 2014\)](#). The correct implementation of such a cross-compliance
340 scheme should have a substantial impact on soil conditions across the EU.
341 Unfortunately, implementation has been rather weak and monitoring of the results by
342 an independent scientific community is essentially lacking. Soil scientists have
343 missed an opportunity to play a key role in this process.

344 Current projects leave little time for scientists to be seriously engaged with both
345 *signaling* and *implementation* and this may have to be changed in future considering
346 the demands but also the challenges and opportunities of the modern information
347 society (e.g. Bouma, 2015).

348

349 **Soil science linking stakeholders and policy makers in the information society**

350 Changes in society, as discussed, have a strong impact on both the scientific and
351 policy arena. Both struggle to communicate well with modern stakeholders and to
352 define the role of science in the information age. When dealing with land-related
353 issues in the context of the SDG's, soil scientists are in an excellent position to
354 become effective intermediaries in the stakeholder-policy-science NEXUS for at least
355 two reasons: (i) traditionally soil scientists have worked intensively with stakeholders
356 in the context of soil survey or soil fertility studies, that involved extensive field work.
357 This has decreased as soil surveys were completed and fertility schemes became
358 well established. But traditions can be rejuvenated as a basis for truly

359 transdisciplinary research that can genuinely engage stakeholders and provide broad
360 support for policy measures, and (ii) even though soils are not mentioned in the
361 SDG's, they form a cross-cutting theme in issues that do receive attention: Water,
362 climate, biodiversity (e.g. Montanarella and Lobos Alva, 2015). This focus tends to
363 unintentionally enforce the disciplinary nature of the water, climate, and biodiversity
364 disciplines. Soil Science, related to " land" as no other discipline, can, in contrast,
365 play a pioneering role in initiating system studies that integrate the various issues in a
366 systems approach. Examples are the studies of Dolman et al, (2014) and De Vries et
367 al, (2015). This type of study is attractive for stakeholders, like farmers, who have to
368 operate complex production systems and for policy makers focusing on
369 environmental quality, having to integrate separate requirements of water, air and
370 nature.

371 One final aspect needs to be considered. The ND legislation in 1991 had a "top-
372 down, command-and-control" character which was realistic at the time because
373 groundwater quality was poor in many locations and something had to be done
374 quickly. But after 25 years still the same top-down approach is followed at a time
375 when not only environmental conditions have significantly improved, but when also
376 the information society has drastically changed relations between policy and
377 stakeholders, as discussed. Bouma (2016) therefore argued for a new "bottom-up"
378 approach where tailor-made systems are designed for individual farms , including
379 indicators that can be used for regulatory purposes. A "one-size-fits-all" approach
380 does not satisfy anymore at a time when well educated young farmers and other land
381 users have access to many tools and sensors that allow on-site characterization of
382 environmental conditions.

383 **Conclusions**

384 1.Traditional procedures in both science and policy are increasingly at odds with the
385 demands of the information society populated by well informed, critical stakeholders.
386 Soil scientists are in an excellent position to link the policy-stakeholder arenas when
387 dealing with land-related environmental issues, accepting the SDG's as common
388 goals. This will require not only inter- but also transdisciplinary research approaches
389 covering the entire policy cycle from *signaling* to *implementation*.

390 2.SDG's with an environmental focus can be approached by defining relevant
391 ecosystem services that require an interdisciplinary research approach including a

392 disciplinary assessment of the role of soil functions when contributing to these
393 ecosystem services.

394 3. Current research programs tend to emphasize the *design* phase of the policy chain.
395 More attention is needed for the *signaling* phase, where the DPSIR procedure can
396 be effective, as well as in the *design* phase. Attention for *implementation* is needed to
397 produce results supporting claims of relevance.

398 4. "Top-down, command-and-control" environmental policy measures, as discussed
399 here for the Nitrate Directive should be replaced by: "bottom-up, interactive"
400 approaches fed by "tailor-made" designs for individual enterprises using inter- and
401 transdisciplinary research approaches. Only this approach is in line with the
402 requirements of the information society in the 21st century.

403

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557 **LIST OF TABLES**

558 Table 1 The seventeen UN Sustainable Development Goals

559 (<http://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/focussdgs.html>).

560 Goal 1 End poverty in all its forms everywhere

561 Goal 2 End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture

562 Goal 3 Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

563 Goal 4 Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for
564 all

565 Goal 5 Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

566 Goal 6 Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

567 Goal 7 Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all

568 Goal 8 Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive
569 employment and decent work for all570 Goal 9 Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster
571 innovation

572 Goal 10 Reduce inequality within and among countries

573 Goal 11 Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

574 Goal 12 Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

575 Goal 13 Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts

576 Goal 14 Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable
577 development578 Goal 15 Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage
579 forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss580 Goal 16 Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to
581 justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels582 Goal 17 Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable
583 development

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590 Table 2 Ecosystem services (ES) with an important soil component according to
591 [Dominati et al. \(2014\)](#).

592 **Provisioning services**

593 1. Provision of food, wood and fibre.

594 2. Provision of raw materials.

595 3. Provision of support for human infrastructures and animals.

596 **Regulating services**

597 4. Flood mitigation

598 5. Filtering of nutrients and contaminants

599 6. Carbon storage and greenhouse gases regulation

600 7. Detoxification and the recycling of wastes

601 8. Regulation of pests and disease populations

602 **Cultural services**

603 9. Recreation

604 10. Aesthetics

605 11. Heritage values

606 12. Cultural identity

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619 Table 3. The seven soil functions as defined by EC(2006)

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621 1 Biomass production, including agriculture and forestry

622 2 Storing, filtering and transforming nutrients, substances and water

623 3 Biodiversity pool, such as habitats, species and genes

624 4 Physical and cultural environment for humans and human activities

625 5 Source of raw material

626 6 Acting as carbon pool

627 7 Archive of geological and archaeological heritage

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649 **List of figures**

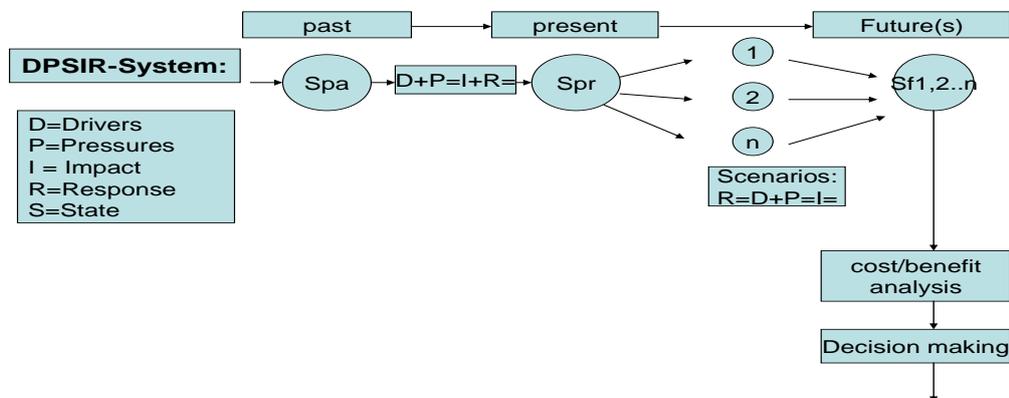
650 Figure 1

651 Future land use scenario's (Sf)(derived in consultation with stakeholders, policy
 652 makers and colleague scientists), from which a choice has to be made in the policy
 653 arena. Which one represents sustainable development best? (S=status of the land
 654 defined in terms of the seven soil functions)

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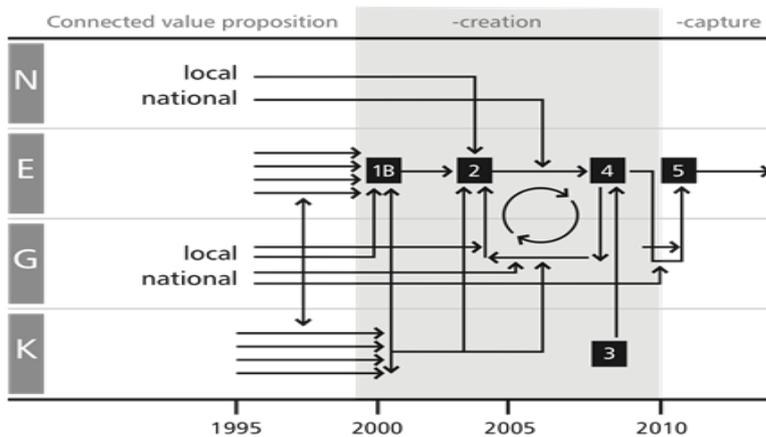
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670 Figure 2

671 Schematic diagram showing complicated and long-duration interaction patterns
 672 between different partners in a transdisciplinary study, developing a sustainable dairy
 673 system in the Netherlands. N=NGO's; E= entrepreneurs; G= Government and K= the
 674 knowledge arena. In this study (Bouma et al, 2011), the policy cycle was simplified
 675 here by describing *signaling* as *connected value proposition*; *design* as *-creation*
 676 which includes *decision* ,while *implementation* corresponds with *- capture*.



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